DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 198 742 FL 012 208

AUTHOR Pack, Alice C., Ed.
TITLE TESL Reporter, Vol. 10, No. 3.
INSTITUTION Brigham Young Univ., Laie, Hawaii. Div. of Communication and Language Arts.
PUB DATE 77
NOTE 22p.: Not available in paper copy due to print quality.

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education: Computer Assisted Instruction: Contrastive Linguistics: *English (Second Language): Reading Instruction: *Second Language Instruction: Sentence Structure: Student Behavior: Student Teacher Relationship: Test Construction: Writing Instruction

ABSTRACT

This issue of a publication devoted to providing ideas and guidance for teachers of English as a second language includes the following articles and features: (1) "Toward Interactive Modes in Guided Composition," (2) "Computer Compatibility in the Classroom," (3) "Discourse Structure in Reading," (4) "Terminal Behavior and Language," (5) "Sector Analysis and Working Sentences," (6) "Hocus-Pocus or TPR?" and (7) "The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and ESL Proficiency Testing." (JB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED198742

TESL Reporter

Volume 10, Number 3

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Alice C. Pack, Ed.

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

FL 012 208

Published by
Communication and Language Arts Division

Volume 10 No. 3 Laie, Hawaii Spring 1977

TOWARD INTERACTIVE MODES IN GUIDED COMPOSITION

by Gerald Dykstra

Guided composition is a tool now widely used by teachers to elicit relatively large amounts of substantially correct and acceptable writing while simultaneously calling on each writer to contribute at a level commensurate with his or her ability.

It is worth emphasizing that guided composition arose out of the traditional school goal of composition writing and that the two still resemble each other very much. I would like to suggest how that happened and go on to characterize the current look of guided composition. Having done that, I will come to my dual purpose in this presentation. I want first to propose a manner of relating guided composition to much of current thought in linguistics and psycholinguistics, then propose some still little-used but promising learner interactions that can contribute added variation, vitality, and relevance to composition and the teaching of composition.

Society's insistence on "the three R's" has given an important place to writing in our school systems. Our school systems, in interpreting the writing mandate, have included composition. Composition thereafter evolved as a need within our educational institutions. The extent to which it actually functions for all people in life outside of our educational institutions has been and may continue for some time to be a question subject to varying answers and points of view. We need not insist on the answer here, but it is useful to recognize doubts about its efficacy and relevance.

Very clearly, however, students in schools are asked to write. Composition writing is highly relevant to school life. Furthermore, student writing is not expected to reflect a highly personal style. It must, rather, reflect common standards of form and style to a considerable extent. Teachers giving writing assignments usually assume these standards. The results have not always been encouraging. The student products resulting from writing assignments have, for the most part,

CONTENTS

Toward Interactive Modes in Guided Composition
by Gerald Dykstra . . . . . Page 1

Computer Compatibility in the Classroom
by Michael D. Miller . . . . . Page 5

Discourse Structure in Reading
by Ron Shook . . . . . Page 6

Terminal Behavior and Language
by Don Bowen . . . . . Page 8

Sector Analysis and Working Sentences
by Lynn Henrichsen . . . . . Page 10

Hocus-Pocus or TPR?
by Gary R. Oddous . . . . . Page 13

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and ESL Proficiency Testing
by Kenneth Aitken . . . . . Page 16

been less than fully acceptable to teachers. Guided and controlled composition in a wide range of forms came in response to the evident needs. They have been suggested as one approach to support all the early stages of learning to write.(1) There is an attempt in guided composition to break down the writing assignment from the broad "write a composition" to ever smaller components until we come to the assignment that the learner can handle readily. The learner can then move up the scale until we finally reach once again, the assignment "write a composition." (2)

The basic format of controlled and guided composition is a series of models, one or more paragraphs long. The learner uses the model as a guide and follows the explicit directions of a step which varies according to the learner's ability. If the learner is relatively unsophisticated, she/he follows the directions of a beginning step which will call for minimal learner contributions. If the learner is relatively advanced, she/he follows the directions of a step that calls for more extensive, or even maximum learner contribution. In this framework, the length and sophistication of the model remain stable throughout the course and students at varying levels of ability produce final writing products that look approximately equally sophisticated and that are very regularly acceptable in form and style. (3)

The unanticipated power of these early courses is attested to by the fact that folk tale style, an incidental characteristic of models of one of the early courses, was discernable in the subsequent writings of students who had taken the course, and was commented upon by others who did not know about the nature of the students' course. In a more recent development, models, while remaining constant within a book, show increasing length, complexity, and sophistication from book to book in a multi-book series. (4)

I am suggesting the view that controlled and guided composition consist of a more careful and successful version of the old assignment "write a composition." I have not tried to answer the question of the real world outside-of-school applications of composition ability. Whatever those applications might be (a question I will not deal with here), it seems fully evident that humans do not universally learn to write acceptable compositions as a normal species specific behavior without reference to special training. Learning to write school compositions has not been like learning to speak one's native language.

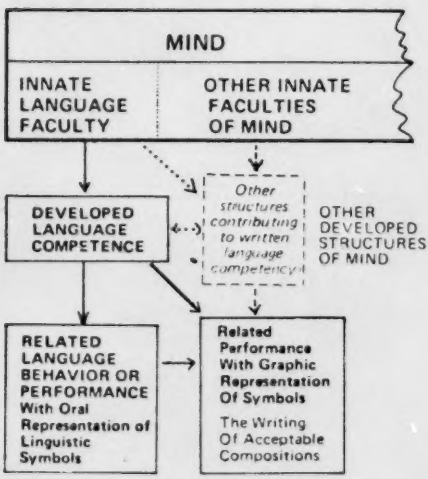
Where is guided composition in relation to some of the current rationalist outlook in linguistics and psycholinguistics? This may be of interest inasmuch as some followers of transformationalist theories have uniformly condemned efforts to introduce control into the acquisition of any ability related to language.

I think we can show such condemnations to be misdirected and counter to the rationalist view itself. In the first place, at least one major variety of guided composition (that variety which is the principal concern of this article), rests "heavily upon transformation, albeit less to explain grammar than to elicit actualizations of it in performance. More important, the condemnation rests upon the obviously erroneous assumption that writing a composition is a species specific behavior on a par with learning to speak a language. The rationalist framework suggests that universal species specific behaviors are acquired without reference to training or structural programs. It does not imply that other behaviors are so acquired. Quite the contrary. Still more important, students with guided composition are demonstrating learning that was not equally achieved without this structure. Just as we might presumably have a lesser number of successful physicists or engineers if we relied wholly upon "natural" situations without educational institutions or programs it seems we would have fewer and less acceptable compositions without appropriately developed programs. One might be happy with such a situation, but that relates to the question of out-of-school relevance which we cannot consider here.

None of the above should suggest that we have reached a plateau in progress. It only suggests that we now have an alternative that is superior to the simple instruction "write a composition." That simple instruction commonly had to be combined with the hope that writing a composition would be intuitively learned by all students in a way exactly parallel to the way that oral language had been learned. (The difference should

perhaps be sufficiently highlighted by the fact that we don't have to say to infants prior to speaking age "speak a sentence" as we have to say to students "write a composition.")

The use of oral symbols representing the language competence of the individual is widely regarded as universal in the human species and related to the human mind. Any representation of the relationship of mind to oral or written symbols must at this time be regarded as approximate and tentative rather than precise and determinate. Nevertheless, it seems worthwhile stating such a relationship in order to clarify the reasoning behind the use and apparent functioning of approaches to development of facility with use of written symbols when parallel approaches to development of facility with oral symbols seem not to function well. The figure below represents my interpretation of a rationalist conception of the mediated, but quite direct relationship of human mind to oral language behavior. (5) Appended to this representation is a postulated double relationship for the area of performance with graphic symbols. Here of course, we will be concerned primarily only with the productive use of graphic symbols--writing.


MIND
INNATE LANGUAGE FACULTY
OTHER INNATE FACULTIES OF MIND
DEVELOPED LANGUAGE COMPETENCE
Other structures contributing to written language competency
OTHER DEVELOPED STRUCTURES OF MIND
RELATED LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR OR PERFORMANCE With Oral Representation of Linguistic Symbols
Related Performance With Graphic Representation Of Symbols
The Writing Of Acceptable Compositions

An extended diagram would presumably specify other faculties of mind and would indicate that some learnings are less than innate or pre-programed; that some (perhaps science abilities, perhaps some aspects of writing ability) can be achieved by choice and with the help of carefully designed programs of presentation; that even some bizarre learnings (nonsense syllable sequences and other old laboratory favorites) can be learned through carefully arranged rewards and punishments.

We are highly prepared (6) to learn to function with the oral representation of linguistic symbols. We seem less well natively endowed, less highly prepared to learn to write (there is no empirical evidence that composition writing is universally learned from as messy a set of data as that we use for learning oral language) or do science, and still less pre-designed to learn to walk a tight rope or recite long lists of nonsense syllables. We are highly unprepared to learn to peck at seeds or fly by flapping any of our appendages.

Dr. Gerald Dykstra is presently a professor of communications at the University of Hawaii and principal planner for the Language Arts for Elementary Schools at the Hawaii Curriculum Center.

Assuming for the present that learning to write compositions is a less predetermined learning category than learning to speak, and assuming that composition writing is nevertheless a desired goal, we may accept within rationalist legitimacy of environmental adjustment as well as within impiricist thought the legitimacy of environmental adjustment in the form of 1) programming from easier to harder for the learner and also, 2) providing contingencies of reward in the form of making the tasks more varied and vital, and putting them in richer and more relevant social contexts.

Since composition is not as universally learned as oral language, since its relevance or extent of function outside the classroom is not immediately clear to all, since it is nevertheless required of almost all of our young people, and since we have been able to put considerable structure and sequence into the assignment "write a composition," to the point where success is more readily achieved by a larger number under more favorable conditions for both teacher and student we might now gain a further step by adding oral language and other interactive modes to our guided composition programs.

We will present two simple interactive modes here (I and II) with variations on each and with an indication of how they may be combined (III). Essentially all of the possibilities mentioned here have been validated in a range of learning environments, though all have not been validated with the guided composition programs referred to in this article. Finally, we will mention an interactive mode that highlights evaluation and suggests possible future developments toward getting the writing of compositions to tie in more closely with life's needs and possibly having it become more naturally learnable like oral language though possibly with less relevance for composition programs as we now know them.

I. Interactive variations in producing the composition.

At the most advanced stage of normal use of guided composition the learner always knows the appropriate step to work on. She/he locates this step number on a chart and selects one or several models on which that step can be worked. The learner can then proceed with the task and usually does so successfully. Ordinarily the writer works alone.

A minor variation which adds a new dimension is to have two "writers" (whom we shall here call A and B) work together in any of the following slightly variant ways.

1. A dictates what is to be written, B writes it from that dictation.

2. A and B discuss what is to be written and produce a joint project.

3. A writes while B watches the process and comments wherever B thinks improvement is possible or has a question. A is free to ask for advice at any point, but the product is A's.

4. A and B write simultaneously, but at different step levels, or, if at the same step level, then using different models.They also stop to examine each other's progress and assure themselves that each is doing the best that either is capable of. They may be encouraged to comment sparingly or, alternatively, to kibbitz extensively, or even to heckle or argue strongly for changes wherever they see possible alternatives.

5. At all step levels where there are elements of free choice partners generate a given number of alternatives (say 10) before the author (or authors, if they are making it a joint product) make a selection of any element that is contributed to the composition.

II. Interactive variations in checking or reading the composition.

In the normal classroom, laboratory or programmed use of guided composition, the teacher can quickly spot check the learners' compositions. Little time is needed for traditional correction work. Learner papers are all substantially correct and yet each is working at approximately his or her maximum level of contribution within the current framework of prepared programs in guided composition, within the constraints that are given. Yet, the teacher is still ordinarily the ultimate target -the one for whom the composition is written. The teacher is the only guaranteed reader or checker—the one who determines whether the learner advances to the next step. This is true to the traditions from which guided composition sprang.

A minor variation on the teachers serving as the only reader consists of having one or more learners serve as readers too, in any of the following slightly variant ways.

1. Learner A writes, learner B proofreads before initialing the work and passing it on to the teacher. (Further variations are possible here inasmuch as B's proofreading, and any resultant notations, may be passed directly on to the teacher or may be used by A to make corrections on the original version or to write a corrected version.)

2. Learner B proofreads as in 1 above. Learner C also proofreads and, if necessary, makes notation in differently colored markings.

3. Learner B edits, She/he reads several compositions for response. She/he ranks compositions on the basis of form and/or content, making either complete rankings or putting compositions into two or more categories, e.g., half only in the "near-perfect" basket, or in the "more interesting" category or in the "most publishable" category, etc.

4. Learner B serves in the role of professional critic or general user and writes a response to the ideas presented in the composition with emphasis on critique.

(continued on page 18)

COMPUTER COMPATIBILITY IN THE CLASSROOM

by Michael D. Miller

Of the many different approaches to teaching students in the ESL classroom, perhaps it can be said that there is not any one "best" way. Certainly, methods that involve the students in teaching themselves have considerable merit, and much of this is due to the involvement and interest generated in the learning experience.

For many years the computer has been used to analyze, compute and manipulate materials, and has also been the base for many self-teaching systems. There are many different ways that a computer system can be applied to the ESL classroom; this being facilitated by the many school systems which have computer systems available. With the use of a simple, easily adapted program many different ESL lessons can be taught and utilized, using available materials and the student's own interest and curiosity to achieve this learning process.

At Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus a program written and adapted to existing materials is now available to students in the English Language Institute program, and the results have been quite appreciable. Using the Dyad Series (Newbury House Publishers) students receive the questions on a video scanner, type their response, and the computer makes a comment as to whether the answer is correct or not. If the answer is incorrect, students are given two more attempts, and if still unsuccessful, the computer gives the answer, and a comment about the mistake. This comment is an example and an explanation, and can be completely adapted and selected by the user/instructor. The students have not only found the exercises interesting and profitable, but have enjoyed the novelty of the approach. Another point is that the student can receive instant feedback on his work.

The program itself is short and requires very little computer system to store and run the program. What the program does is compare two strings of words (which can range from one word to 75 words, plus punctuation) and if there is a difference in the two strings there will be an error cited. As the program is accessed by the instructor (or lab assistant, as in the BYU--HC study) a card deck is simply fed into the system which contains the introduction and instructions for the student, an example, and the questions (sentences, words, etc.) to be presented to the student with the appropriate answers. The program gives the question to the student (in the Dyad Series a sentence with a blank to filled in), the student types his answer or response, e.g., fills in the blank, rewrites the sentence, etc., and the computer compares the student's answer with the answer (s) already entered by the instructor in the card deck., thus giving the student instant feedback.

Lessons on pronouns, prepositions, sentence construction, contractions, negative sentence patterns, plural noun forms, spelling and definition of words, etc., are readily adaptable to this type of program.

TESL Reporter

A quarterly publication of the Communication and Language Arts Division of the Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus

Editor . . . . . Alice C. Pack
Staff . . . . . William Gallagher
Greg Larkin
Ron Safsten

Articles relevant to teaching English as a Second Language may be submitted to the editor through Box 157 BYU–HC, Laie, Hawaii 96762.

DISCOURSE STRUCTURE IN READING

by Ron Shook

This is the second part of a three-part article by Professor Shook.

In the first part of this paper, I discussed the relationship that exists between reading, linguistic maturity, and cognitive skills. I concluded that the ESL reader is rather a special case, because although he is unlearned in the English language, he is often a fully mature reader in his own language, and brings to his reading classes a well developed set of perceptual and cognitive skills. This puts him in an interesting and anomolous position, because he needs reading materials, and especially exercises, that will satisfy these mature cognitive skills without overwhelming him linguistically. Sadly, this is not the case with much of the reading material (and exercises) we use with our ESL readers. Rather than being overwhelmed with linguistic complexity, they are being underwhelmed with linguistic simplifications which they haven't had to deal with since they were children. I suggested in part one that there were three areas of the reading process which concerned me especially. They were,". . . a profusion of detail as question fodder 2) an oversimplified syntax, and 3) an artificial construction that violates the principles of civilized discourse." In the balance of part one I discussed the problem of extraneous detail. In this part of the paper, I shall concern myself with problems (2) and (3) as noted above.

SYNTAX MADE SIMPLE

In deciding what level of syntax to use with a beginning ESL reader, (or any beginning reader, for that matter), there are two interrelated questions that should be considered. They are: 1) what level of difficulty can the student process at all? How many subordinate clauses or coordinations will he be able to handle before he loses the thread of the discourse? Put another way, we might ask, how many transformations can a student handle? It is often the case, for instance, that an ESL student has no trouble with a question transformation, changing [Steven past go wh+NP] into "Where did Steven go?", but when that same student has to embed the question in another sentence, he will formulate something on the order of, "Harry asked where did Steven go?" indicating some sort of syntactic or semantic overload.

The second question that needs to be asked is, "What *kinds* of structures (embeddings, clauses, transformations) are likely to inhibit processing of material?" We should not only be asking questions about quantity, we should be asking them about quality. Conversely, teachers could be asking themselves, "Are there any structures that can actually make the student's job easier?" Rather than seriously asking either of these two questions it appears that scholars have simply decided that *short is beautiful*, and have created very simple, beads-on-a-string sentences for their reading exercises, even when such sentences are like nothing the student will ever encounter in the real world.

Of course, it is possible to put a virtual halt to a passage of text by injudicious embedding, such as Jeremy Bentham does in this magnificent example of snarled prose:

> (1) By a man's connexions in the way of support, are to understood the pecuniary assistances, of whatever kind, which he is in the way of receiving from any persons, who, on whatever account, and whatever proportion, he has reason to expect should contribute gratis to his maintenance.

On the other hand, it is equally possible that well written prose, though complicated in the sense of having multiple propositions embedded, is not only not difficult to read, but can have the effect of pulling the reader along, easing his job. Consider the following

paragraph from Hans Zinzer's *Rats, Lice and History* (for which I am indebted to David E. Eskey, 1973):

(2) When all is said and done, we have no satisfactory explanation for the disappearance of plague epidemics from the Western countries and we must assume that in spite of the infectiousness of the plague bacillus, the plentifulness of rats, and their invariable infestation with fleas, the evolution of an epidemic requires a delicate adjustment of many conditions which have, fortunately, failed to eventuate in Western Europe and America during the last century.

This sentence is 77 words long, about half again as long as the Bentham sentence, yet immeasurably easier to understand. An analysis of both sentences would give a partial answer: Bentham is full of center and right branching structures, and obscure passives, tends to double back on himself, whereas the Zinzer paragraph proceeds steadily in one direction.

The difference, then, is not complexity vs. simplicity, but the *way* a sentence is complex. If, for instance, we have a pair of sentences like the following:

(3) Judy loved her mother. Her mother lived in New Jersey.

It is no favor to the adult reader, no matter how unsure of the language he may be, to leave them in that form. Rather, it would be better to combine them into something like:

(4) Judy loved her mother, who lived in New Jersey.

In this case, the relative clause, rather than hindering the processing of the sentence, is more liable to further it. Part of the mnemonic value of structures such as:

(5) This is the cow
that tossed the dog
that chased the cat
that killed the rat
that ate the cheese
that lay in the house
that Jack built.

is in the structure. The relatives are strung together, each one contributing to the next. This is a plus for the reader.

Let me now turn to an exercise used at my school for testing reading skill. The test of the reading exercise is as follows:

(6) In ancient Hawaii no one owned the land. It belonged to the gods. The high chiefs were the caretakers of the land. Each high chief divided the land among his chiefs. It was for their use. But they did not own it. The common people worked the land. They made crops grow. But they never thought of owning the land any more than they thought of owning the ocean.

While today it is fashionable to pooh-pooh the *dicta* of traditional prescriptive grammar, it can be seen here that there is some rationale for saying that one should never begin a sentence with the word *but*. The sixth sentence, "But they did not own the land," is clearly connected to the sentence before it by a much closer tie than is indicated by the period and new sentence. They are tightly related contraries and to express them as one sentence not only shows this elegantly, but helps the reader to assimilate the relationship. And would it be too hard to understand the sentence, "It was for their use." if the *it was* were deleted and the resultant clause attached to the foregoing sentence? I really don't think so.

If we were to do some elementary editing, the passage might read as follows:

(7) In ancient Hawaii no one owned the land for it belonged to the gods. The high chiefs were the caretakers of the land. Each high chief divided the land among his chiefs for their use, but they did not own it. The common people worked the land and made the crops grow. But they never thought of owning the land any more than they thought of owning the ocean.

The changes made in the example are all minor, and none disrupts the natural flow of the elements of the paragraph. Yet the second paragraph is much smoother. The relationships of propositions inside the paragraph is more clear, thanks to the inclusion of such words as *for* and *and*, and the combining of a couple of sentences. Note too that the word for makes explicit a relationship that in the earlier paragraphs

(continued on Page 19)

TERMINAL BEHAVIOR AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

by Don Bowen

This still pertinent article on language teaching first appeared in the second issue of the *TESL Reporter* (Winter 1968) and is reprinted as a special bonus to our readers. It has been widely quoted and appears in Kenneth Croft's *Readings on English as a Second Language* (Winthrop Publishers, 1972)

In modern education one often hears of the concept 'terminal behavior.' This is a term supplied from the field of psychology, a term which reflects the belief that the measure of any successful educational activity is the degree to which the student's behavior is modified. To what extent does he do or can he do things he did not or could not before the lessons were presented.

The term fits comfortably in second-language teaching, where we wish to influence the behavior of students by enabling them to communicate effectively in a medium other than their native language. The extent to which they can do this can be measured and evaluated as a reflection of the effectiveness of the teaching (plus whatever aptitude and motivation the student brings to the classroom).

Knowing what terminal behavior we seek should be useful in the design of our teaching. We should select and arrange activities that lead directly to the acquisition of the required behavior. The trouble is we do not know explicitly what sequence of activities does lead to the skill of communicating effectively in a new language.

We observe that all normal human infants in a socially typical environment do learn their mother tongue, but we also know that this experience cannot be recreated for a teenager or an adult. Natural language learning seems to be possible only with the optimum combination of age and circumstance.

The desired terminal behavior in a second language is communication within a relevant range of experience, ideally the same range the student commands in his first language. But obviously for a non-infant this is a highly developed and complex pattern of behavior involving physiological and neurological coordinations that can be controlled only with extensive practice. It is an activity never yet successfully described in all its specific detail, nor yet imitated by any machine.

We know as teachers that we can't ask beginning students to practice by simply imitating what we desire as their terminal behavior. They are not capable of doing so.

Dr. Bowen, professor of English at the University of California at Los Angeles and a well-known author of books and articles on ESL, has spent the past two years at the American University in Cairo.

Rather we substitute various types of intermediate behavior which we hope will lead to the desired terminal behavior. We cannot, in other words, ask them to communicate in a language they have just begun to study, so we employ various repetition exercises, substitution drills, etc., postponing communication for the more advanced levels of training.

This is necessary; we have no choice. But teachers must assume two important responsibilities: (1) to understand how intermediate-type activities can be meaningfully related (in pedagogical terms) to terminal behavior and (2) to move steadily toward communication in the selection and design of activities in the classroom.

Teachers will usually accept this view, especially on an intellectual plane, as a reasonable picture of what they must accomplish. But how is it implemented in the classroom? How do we move from manipulation to communication? How do we get students to a point where they can

operate in the realm of the desired terminal behavior?

Manipulative activities are characterized by predicatability the teacher knows all the answers and his corrections are based on this knowledge. But communicative activities presume that the listener does not know all the answers only the limitations within which the answers must fall. Choices are left to the speaker otherwise there is no point to the communication, and it would never normally occur.

The application to language teaching, then, seems to be the use of activities (questions, answers, rejoinders, reactions, etc.) which are not predictable. The skill with which a teacher can direct such activities is a measure of his professional competence and, incidentally, the teachers's best guarantee that his job will not soon be taken over by a machine.

Every teacher should ask himself whether he is using all the communication activities his students are capable of participating in. He should be able to analyze each classroom activity (usually each drill or exercise) to know whether it involves communication and to what extent. He should utilize communication-type activities as early as possible and increase the percentage of their use as his students increase their capability.

A consideration of terminal behavior is the touchstone to identify the elements of communication that are available in the classroom. For each activity a teacher should ask two questions: (1) Does the response to this stimulus represent a skill the student will need when he is on his own? and (2) Does this activity stretch the student's capacity by requiring that he express a thought of his own, one that the teacher cannot fully predict? Then, of course, the teacher must know if he is offering enough of these activities that require independent student action, enough so that the student can operate effectively when eventually he is left to his own resources.

In short, manipulation activities such as repetition, substitution, and transformation are useful, even necessary, to the beginner. But he must go beyond these if he is ever to achieve a useful control of his second language in situations that demand real and authentic communication. And it is the teacher's responsibility to see that he does.

BOOK REVIEW

Line, Anna Harris. *Yesterday and Today in the U. S. 4.* 267pp. paperback
Prentice-Hall, 1977 $6.50

If you're looking for an intermediate to advanced level ESL reader that can "enhance the English proficiency of non-native speakers, while at the same time introducing them to some distinctive aspects of the American background," then this book is a good choice. The quoted phrase above is from the author's own preface and states very precisely the twin accomplishments of the book.

There are 48 different readings, covering a wide range of "American" topics, from 'The First Americans" to the "National Parks." In between, distinctive American holidays, religions, historical events, political processes, characters, and inventions are all featured, along with many others.

The book is very flexible, owing to several features. First the readings increase in difficulty through the text, relating to a wide range of student abilities. Second, after each reading there is a series of exercises giving the student directed practice on such skills as pronunciation, word formation, structure, spelling, idioms, etc. Following these exercises are questions on the reading and a list of further readings on the subject, with easy readings designated.

I have used this book with many nonnative speakers of English, and found them uniformly enthusiastic about the readings because they felt they were learning English as they learned about America. I have found it especially effective to assign a series of related readings from the book, such as a reading on Martin Luther King and one on the Civil Rights Movement, or a reading on Susan B. Anthony and one on Women's Liberation. Many such significant juxtapositions are possible from the readings. I strongly recommend the book and plan to continue to use it in ESL classes.

Greg Larkin

SECTOR ANALYSIS AND I.

by Lynn E. Henrichsen

Sector analysis, as embodied in the textbook *Working Sentences*, is rapidly gaining widespread prominence as an effective way of teaching writing skills.

Not a recent development, sector analysis dates back to the time when Kenneth Pike was developing Tagnemics–slot-and-filler grammar. Not until 1975, however, was *Working Sentences*, the first widely-used textbook based on sector analysis, published.

Unlike transformational grammar or other grammars intended to describe or generate the entire language, sector analysis is a specialized grammar designed by Robert L. Allen of Teachers College, Columbia University as a teaching grammar of "edited" English, the English used in mature writing. As the book's foreword to the instructor explains, "Sector analysis differs from most other grammars in two important ways: it is construction-oriented, not word-oriented; and it is a grammar of written English rather than of spoken English." The underlying premise of both the grammar and the text is that "in English, as in many modern languages, writing is a separate system–related to, but different from, the system of the spoken language."

Often called x-word grammar, sector analysis uses a number of modal auxiliaries called x-words to make yes-no questions, locate subjects, carry time, and much more. The manipulation of these x-words is the first step in dividing sentences into various units. In analyzing writing, language "chunks" are seen as being just as important as individual words, and student attention is focused on the large constructions that make up a sentence.

Intentionally ambiguous, the book's title, *Working Sentences*, indicates the book's dual purpose. The introduction explains, "*Working* sentences are obviously sentences that are productive and businesslike -- sentences that do their job. But there is also another meaning for *working*: potters work clay into pots and vases, and glassblowers work glass into different shapes for different purposes. *Work*, in this sense, means 'to shape' or 'to form' for a special purpose." After learning what *Working Sentences* teaches, students should be able to produce sentences that exhibit signs of care and reflection; sentences that are more interesting, more effective, and more tightly knit together; sentences that have been loaded to their meaningful capacity; sentences that make up what is called "edited" English.

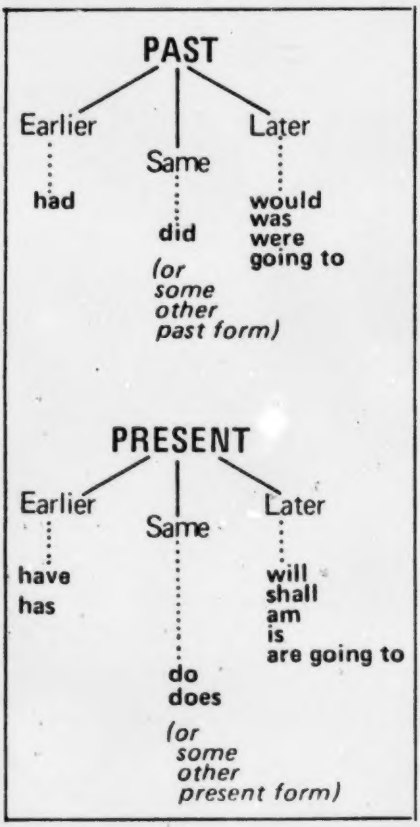
The first thing that many people see when they examine *Working Sentences* is a barrage of new and unfamiliar terms. *Shifters, includers, predicatids, trunks, half sentences, roving linkers*, and more confront the casual inspector of the book. Unfortunately, English teachers schooled in the Latin grammarians' tradition of eight parts of speech and the like are usually the least able to tolerate such a variety of new descriptive terms, and they are often the first to close the book in combined derision and bewilderment. This is unfortunate, because many of the new terms are more "logical," or at least more descriptive, than the traditional ones. A good example of this is found in the new names given to verb forms. Even staunch defenders of the traditional term "past participle" are hard pressed to define what "participle" really means. And besides, *past* participles don't always indicate past time *(Tomorrow I will have started.)*. In sector analysis the same form is called the *D-T-N* form simply because it most often ends in the letter *d, t,* or *n*. Following the same line of reasoning, sector analysis presents the *ING*, the *S*, and the *No-S* forms of the English verb. Rounding out the picture are the *base* form and the *past* form.

There is more, however, to sector analysis than just a new set of names, and to really understand this new grammar one should study the entire book. An example or two, however, may help to make the point here. The above mentioned forms of the verb are divided into two categories: time oriented *(S, No-S,* and *past)* and timeless *(base, DTN,* and *ING)*. Since they carry time, x-words

WORKING SENTENCES

can only be used alone or in connection with a timeless verb form, and they cannot be combined with time-oriented forms. Once students understand this, sentences such as *He working.* (no time) or *He doesn't works.* (time twice) are eliminated.

Sector analysis in *Working Sentences* gives some particularly lucid explanations of the grammar of written English. Perhaps the most valuable of these is the treatment of time-relationships in clauses. A simple diagram in the book does much to clear up student confusion in this important area.



As the diagram indicates, certain x-words are used only in certain time slots. A sentence with past time orientation uses past throughout: *Tom said* (past orientation) *that his car had* (earlier) *broken down, that he was* (same time) *trying to fix it, and that he would* (later) *be here as soon as possible.* Even though some of the events have already occurred (i.e. the breaking down of the car) the same sentence with present orientation uses present forms: *Tom says* (present orientation) *that his car has* (earlier) *broken down, that he is* (same time) *trying to fix it, and that he will* (later) *be here as soon as possible.* Any teacher who has struggled trying to explain this complex relationship to students will realize the great value of this simple-to-understand explanation of time in clauses.

Along with the new approach to sentence construction, time, and verb forms, *Working Sentences* displays good pedagogical sense. The book is very teachable with understandable explanations of the new grammar and very workable exercises for student practice.

The book itself is divided into fifteen units. The first five provide a foundation in sector analysis and, at the same time, a good review of some basic grammar concepts such as agreement, subjects and predicates, and pronouns, but approached from a different angle than traditionally. Just because it offers this new viewpoint, sector analysis' way of explaining the same old English is often helpful to students who have studied traditional grammar for a long time but never really understood it. After understanding the points presented in these first units, students will be able to write correct sentence *trunks* and continue on with the remaining ten chapters which explain the construction of more complex sentences and how additional information is added onto or "packed" into the basic sentence trunk.

Just as valuable as the new concepts and their explanations are the many good exercises which the book provides. Each unit has two or three "practices" interspersed through the unit and four "tasks" at the end which allow the student to use what he has learned. Whenever possible, a context is provided to make these challenging exercises

more meaningful. For example, Task A of unit four, "Writing about Past Time" does not simply direct, "Change the following sentences to past tense." Instead, it explains, "The following is a transcript of notes made by a private detective shadowing a suspect. The detective recorded his notes on a miniature tape recorder in his pocket. He intended to type them up later on. In doing so, he intended to change all of the present forms to past forms, leaving the rest of his sentences pretty much as he had recorded them, but you are asked to help him out by making the changes for him." This contextualization and humanization of exercises is appreciated by students and teachers alike.

For foreign ESL students, one drawback to the exercises is what may be called their "cultural difficulty." Interesting sentences about Andrew Wyeth or knock-knock jokes are not so interesting to ESL students who have never heard of the artist or the jokes. In some cases this extra cultural content may be an extra burden for the struggling student to bear.

A lot has been said about what *Working Sentences* does. Perhaps it would be in order to also mention what it does *not* do. After all, the book is not meant to be a complete English language teaching program.

First of all, it does not teach many basic grammatical points. Count and non-count nouns, proper use of articles, order of noun modifiers, and many other important points are not explained. It is assumed that the student has already learned such things through a thorough study of the spoken language. When students do not have a sound understanding of basic grammar, supplementary exercises must be provided.

A number of other assumptions are made. The explanations of how to use such things as includers ("*Because* he did not study, he failed.") are very good. But knowing how to construct such a sentence is only half the battle. Besides knowing how to make constructions using words such as *because, since, whether, if, in case,* or *although,* ESL students need to know *which* includer to use for the desired meaning or relationship and *when* to use it. Especially when their native language does not have similar terms, students will need explanations and practice in the appropriate use of such constructions and the proper choice of includers, coordinators, and linkers showing contrast, reason, condition, etc.

The proper use of a number of constructions is left to the intuition of the writing student. The book explains that a certain construction (the half sentence, for example) "does not always 'feel' quite right" in a certain position. Native speakers working to improve their writing may know when something "feels" right. ESL speakers with a good deal of experience and exposure to the language might also have developed some sort of "feel" for the language. Many ESL students who do not have this "feel," however, will need some explanation in addition to that provided by the book.

In summary, the title of the book, *Working Sentences,* provides a good clue to what it does and does not do. The book is *not* called *Working Paragraphs* or *Working Essays,* because it does not pretend to teach organizational skills, thought development, stylistic conventions, or many of the other things requisite to good, formal writing. Properly used, it provides an essential interlude between standard instruction in basic grammar and later instruction in logical and coherent paragraph and essay writing.

In the Summer 1977 issue of the *TESL Reporter,* Mr. Henrichsen will report on the combined use of *Working Sentences* and *Composition: Guided Free* in remedial classes for Samoan teachers in an in-country bachelor's program.

TYPING TEXT

In answer to many requests about the publication *Learning to Type in English as a Second Language,* the following information is given:

The publisher, University Press of America is a division of R. F. Publishing, Inc. 4710 Auth Place, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20023. Although the text and format are identical with the first printing, the second printing of this text has large typing-size print, with an 8 x 11 size page. It also has ring binding, eliminating clozure while typing.

HOCUS-POCUS OR TPR?

by Gary R. Oddous

Often ESL teachers, especially those young and inexperienced, are attracted to the most current language-teaching method; and, this language-teaching method may tend to be the one the graduate student's methodology teacher favored in class. All teachers, however, inexperienced and experienced, must learn to analyze each language-teaching method upon the merits of the teacher-subject-learner relationships involved.

The relationship of the teacher-learner is extremely complex upon examination of the intellectual, social, and emotional aspects of such a relationship. This paper does not pretend to exhaust the possible ideas in examining the teacher-learner relationship; it does presume to interpret such a relationship as basic and relevant to ESL, according to the author's experience and observation.

We all know that within the fundamental ingredients of the language teaching setting the teacher, the medium of instruction, and the learner "secret" to a successful teacher-student relationship can be found. Upon examining these three criteria, it often appears that a single teacher can use several different methods of language-teaching, all with fairly equal success; conversely, some teachers, regardless of their teaching method, fail equally so. Assuming that these are general assumptions which can be accepted, we are led to believe that more important, perhaps far more important, is the teacher-learner relationship involved in the language-learning situation.

However, the language-teaching method becomes extremely important, because it is *through* that method that the teacher expresses his understanding of the individual needs of his students, with their differing personalities, motivations, and goals. It is also through this medium that the learner interprets the teacher's understanding of the learner's own perception of his individual needs.

A brief analogy might serve to illustrate the complexity of such a relationship. People are said to show their feelings toward another person in many different ways. Some show their feelings through words, others through kindnesses and gestures, still others through a physical display of affection, and most use varying combinations of all these methods. Three or four important points can be extracted from this example. First, there are different ways two people can show their feelings for each other. Second, each person, characteristically, has a tendency to show his feelings for others in ways that are comfortable, natural to him. Third, each person has certain expectations of how he would like to be informed of another's feelings for him. Fourth, if an extension can be made, if either person showing or being shown feelings is frustrated, it is probably for one of two reasons: either the mode of transmission of feelings by the sender is not fully understood and accepted by the receiver, or else the feelings aren't transmitted to the other person so that the receiver feels his own individual needs and expectations are understood. Further, another consideration in such a relationship is that not only does each person involved act comfortably and naturally according to his own personality, but each acts, also, according to his perception of the other's expectations. An incorrect perception is a potential source for great frustration: a correct perception is a potential source for great satisfaction.

Gary Oddous, currently completing a master's program at the Brigham Young University, has taught adult education in Provo, Utah.

In this example, it is evident that the medium of information-transformation is extemely important. It serves as the measure of understanding that the teacher and student have for each other's role.

The analogy can be made, then, of the teacher-learner relationship to the above example. First, just as there are different

ways of showing feelings, there are different ways of teaching language. Second, as each person shows his feelings in ways comfortable to him, each teacher teaches through methods that are comfortable and more natural to him. Third, just as each person has certain expectations of how he wants to be loved or cared about, he also has expectations of how he wants to be taught and what he wants to learn (It might be appropriate here to add that often the individual isn't fully cognizant of his expectations; yet, expectations are there.). Likewise, extending the analogy as in the previous example, if either the teacher or student is frustrated, this frustration is probably for one of two reasons: either the teacher feels his chosen language-teaching method is not understood for its validity and benefits, and thus it is rejected by the students; or, from the student's point of view, he feels that his expectations and individual needs are not understood by the teacher and thus he is not being fulfilled by his language-learning experience.

To illustrate the above ideas, let's apply them to a hypothetical, yet familiar situation to many of us. Let's say that a teacher has chosen the audio-lingual approach to teach English to a group of Cambodian students. First, let's review the basic tenets of the audio-lingual method: [1]

1) Language is the formation of habits, of conditioned responses taught through dialogs and patterned drills. It is the acquisition of nonthoughtful responses.
2) Language should be taught without reference to the student's native language. It should be taught as it occurs in real context.
3) Students practice drills before the structure is explained. Knowledge of the rule only impedes the student's progress in learning to give conditioned responses.
4) Students first learn to listen, then to speak, later to read, and finally to write. Of the four skills, the oral and aural skills are the most important.

The teacher enthusiastically begins his class by teaching a beginning dialog. The teacher soon learns that his Cambodian students, mostly because of their cultural personality--the teacher may or may not realize this, are extremely hesitant to speak out loud, and particularly when the teacher asks them to perform before the class. Nervous and somewhat bored by the amount and type of oral drills, the students speak softly and embarrassingly. The teacher recognizes, what seems to him, a lack of interest on the part of the students. He judges that they are not interested in learning English this way, or that they don't care for him as their teacher, or maybe even that the students don't really want to learn English at all. He becomes frustrated, somewhat disillusioned, as he is not an experienced teacher. Further, the students want to know why the structure of the language is the way it is; the teacher tries to avoid the explanation and offers some "around the bush" explanation instead -- all this, because the audio-lingual method dictates that knowledge of the rule or principle of the structure impedes the student's progress in learning to respond conditionally. Well, not to belabor the point, the overall experience for everyone involved, the students and the teacher, is a very frustrating one. So what can a teacher do?

Most importantly, a teacher must realize the underlying assumptions a particular language-teaching method has about language learning. In other words, he must not accept, face value, the worthiness of a particular method on the personal preference of a teacher he/she reveres or on the particular language-teaching method that seems to be in vogue. The teacher must learn several methods and be flexible in his approach to teaching. He must consider the students, their cultural background, their language background, their motives for learning English, and if possible, their expectations of how they think they want to be taught. Because each teacher is different, personality-wise, than another teacher, he must also consider his personal sentiments concerning teaching, language acquisition, motives for teaching, and many other things. He must be ready to delete certain practices of one method, if they aren't working, and be ready to preserve others; he needs not totally abandon a method, but be sensitive to modifying it, combining two or several of

[1] Kenneth Chastain, *Developing Second-Language Skills: Theory to Practice*, 2nd ed. (Chicago, 1976), pp. 111-112.

the basic language-learning methods.

There are methods of eliciting from students their preferred language learning exercises, enabling the teacher to emphasize those types of exercises. At Brigham Young University in Provo, for example, a survey was administered to the foreign students in the service courses (ESL 101, 102, 201, and 103) and to many of the students in the Intensive English Program, a total of 92 students. The survey asked for an indication of the language-learning practices they most preferred. Some practice exercises were listed on the survey for the students to choose from; for other items there was space provided to fill in any additional types of exercises. The results of the survey follow, ranked from most popular to least popular:

IN-CLASS ACTIVITIES

1. Conversation practice
2. Learning vocabulary
3. Pronunciation practice
4. Dictation
5. Grammar activities
6. Use of dialogs

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Conversation assignments
2. Workbook exercises
3. Reading assignments
4. Writing assignments
5. Dialog memorization

Such an index can prove useful to a teacher, though the teacher must be careful to keep the balance of language skills he desires to teach and the students desire to learn. Such a survey is easily administered and can be adapted to virtually any class.

In conclusion, nothing in this paper will be beneficial to the learning, experienced teacher; he/she has long since realized all this. However, to the teacher less experienced, some pitfalls can be avoided by being wary of the language-learning process as described in this paper. The teacher is largely the success or failure of the student's language-learning experience. Sensitivity to and thoughtfulness (in the true sense of the word) of students and of language-learning methods can build a successful student-teacher-language relationship.

1977 SUMMER CLASSES

BYU--Hawaii Campus will offer numerous credit and non-credit courses in two special Aloha Summer Session study blocks on its scenic rural Hawaii campus this summer.

Of special interest to TESL and ELI instructors are the following courses:

Teaching English as a Second Language (Eng. 590M; Dr. Alice Pack, instructor; daily for 3 credit hours) June 13-24.

Teaching English as a Second Language (second section, as above) June 27-July 8.

Both these TESL sections will offer opportunities to create practical teaching lessons and develop personalized and effective TESL teaching materials. No prerequisite.

Also of interest are these stimulating educational opportunities:

Polynesian Music Poly. Studies 135; staff instruction; daily for 2 credit hours) June 21-July 19.

Peoples of Polynesia (Poly. Studies 579; Dr. Max Stanton, instructor; daily for four credit hours) June 21-July 19.

Hawaiian Reef and Shores (Bio. 130; Dr. Dean Andersen, instructor; one day per week for one credit hour) two sections, June 21-July 19.

Also offered are excellent non-credit courses in culturally fascinating studies including Polynesian Lei-Making, Coconut Leaf Weaving, Chinese Brush Painting, Polynesian Weaving and Foods of the Pacific (an excellent introduction to food preparation in Polynesia and the Orient). From June 20 to July 28 the University will offer a wide variety of courses including Polynesian Crafts, Photography, Tae Kwon Do, Swimming and other stimulating classes to youth and children ages 3 to 18.

For further information on these and other educational programs for an outstanding summer of study and tropic fun, please write to ALOHA SUMMER SESSION, Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii 96762

THE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS AND ESL PROFICIENCY TESTING

By Kenneth G. Aitken

The idea of using contrastive analysis as a basis for the construction of ESL proficiency tests has been around for many years.

Although the theoretical foundations of contrastive analysis (CA) have been challenged many times since Chomsky (1959) reviewed B.F. Skinner's verbal learning theories, many classroom teachers continue in blind faith to accept the validity of CA in testing and teaching English as a second language. It is the purpose of this paper to review some of the flaws in the CA hypothesis that tend to destroy its creditability as a basis for constructing proficiency tests.

To introduce the topic, I will begin by examining the fundamental assumptions of the CA hypothesis, and those aspects of verbal learning theory upon which they are built, then discuss a number of flaws in these assumptions and their implications for ESL proficiency testing.

The CA hypothesis rests on the following assumptions from verbal learning theory:

1. **Learning is the process of making responses automatically.**
2. **Acquiring a new response to a particular stimulus or context requires the extinction of the old response.**

These are linked with the notion of transfer of learning. As Upshur (1962:124) explains it:

> In general, transfer may be considered as a tendency to make a habitual response to a novel situation as a function of the similarity between the stimulus of the old habit and the stimulus of the new situation.

Sometimes an old response (or habit) will fit in a new situation. This is called positive transfer. Negative transfer occurs when the old response (habit) does not fit the new situation and has not been extinguished.

From this foundation Charles Fries (1945) and Robert Lado (1957) propose these concepts:

3. **Language learning is habit formation; in other words, the automatization of responses.**
4. **Where the second language differs from the native language, (i.e. old habit) impedes the learning of the second language (new habit).**
5. **A systematic contrastive analysis can identify the second language habits which will be difficult to learn because of interference from native language negative transfer. The degree of interference can also be ascertained by these analyses. (Upshur 1962)**

When we examine the above statements, it appears that if learning is automatization of responses, it follows that language learning is automatization of response too. Dulay and Burt (1972) point out that, according to the verbal learning theorists, if learning is automatization of response, then it must necessarily follow that acquiring a new set of responses to a particular stimulus or context requires the *extinction* of the old set of responses. Herein lies one of the problems of the CA hypothesis: if a new response is learned, the old response must be unlearned. This implies that the first language must be unlearned or extinguished so that the second language can be learned. The existence of bilingual individuals in our schools and communities runs counter to this implication.

Presumably to account for bilingualism, Lado, in **Linguistics Across Cultures** (1957: 59) has substituted the notion of *difficulty* for extinction. He discusses similarity and

difference between first and second language as determiners of ease and difficulty in language learning. As previously mentioned, statement (2) is a necessary condition for statement (1). If it can be shown that statement (2) is false, i.e. extinction does not take place, then is statement (2) false. But he continues to assume that language learning is habit formation (statement 3), another necessary condition for statement (1). Lado has violated the conditions upon which he has based the CA hypothesis. However, he has not replaced the now falsified theoretical foundations with a new verbal learning theory.

The CA hypothesis, restated, predicts that if language learning is habit formation, then it must follow that where the second language differs from the first language of the speaker, the first language hinders the formation of the second language. Conversely, where the second language is similar to the first language, then second language learning becomes easier. However, if it were found that where the two languages differ there was no hindrance, or negative transfer, this would falsify the idea that language learning is habit formation. Similarly, if language learning errors occurred in places where the languages are similar, these errors would provide counter evidence that would undermine the habit formation concept. Lance (1969) reports that one-third to two-thirds of his adult foreign students' English errors were not traceable to their first language. Studies by Hocking (1969), Richards (1971), and Dulay and Burt (1972) also provide evidences of the non-predictive and mis-predictive ability of contrastive analysis which challenge the assumptions of the CA hypothesis. Dulay and Burt (1972:241) point out that:

> "If it is true that L2 learners make (errors) in L2 that would have been avoided had they followed the rules of L1, the question is raised as to whether negative transfer can be used as an underlying principle that can explain and predict L2 goofs."

With such evidences available one would certainly question whether learning difficulties can be predicted by a contrastive analysis of the native and target audiences.

There is, however, still another weakness in CA that has consequences in ESL proficiency testing. Contrastive analysis supporters propose to compare and contrast the language learner's mother tongue with the target language he is learning, then to predict or explain learning on that basis. However, soon after second language learning begins, a learner language, or *interlanguage*, emerges which, unlike the mother tongue and target language, is unstable and therefore difficult to contrast.

The interlanguage hypothesis proposed by Corder (1967, 1971), Nemser (1971), and Selinker (1972) regards the speech of a second language learner as a real language with a systematic grammar. They propose that interlanguage is transient in that it develops in successive stages of acquisition during the learning process. Corder (1971) refers to learner languages as idiosyncratic dialects, which implies that they are unique to each learner as well as being approximations of the target language.

Contrastive analysis based tests are devised after making comparisons of the learner's mother tongue and the second language. This comparison ignores the learner's interlanguage development which may have tentative rules contrary to the rules of the target language, yet not related to the learner's mother tongue.

To develop a CA based test for each learner's unique interlanguage at any given moment would be a formidable task, probably impossible, and certainly useless. Such tests would take so long to develop and validate that the learner's approximation of the target language would probably have changed, thus invalidating the tests.

It seems that the CA hypothesis, as a tool for predicting certain errors and points of difficulty in L2 acquisition is probably best regarded as an experimental basis of research and not as a pedagogical panacea. It is unfortunate that so many test developers, textbook writers and applied linguists have made the much stronger claim that the CA hypothesis is the best basis for language proficiency testing, program designing and classroom procedure.

REFERENCES

Chomsky, Noam. (1959). A review of B.F. Skinner's verbal behavior. in J. Katz and J.Foder (eds.) *The Structure of Language*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall 1964.

(continued on page 19)

TOWARD INTERACTIVE MODES . . .

(continued from page 4)

III. Combinations of interactions.

Although the variations presented above are minor enough so that they can be initiated without necessarily changing the procedures of a guided composition classroom in any drastic way, it will be noted that highly detailed procedures are not given. In II, 1 above, for example, a loose arrangement may be set up wherein each writer is required to submit any completed composition to a proofreader and all other members of the class constitute qualified proofreaders. Alternatively, learners are paired and serve as proofreaders for each other only. Alternatively, again, the proofreading task may be considered a desirable introduction to a step that must subsequently be achieved. In this case qualified proofreaders consist only, or mostly, of those who have not yet reached a given step but who are next in line to reach that step. Alternatively, once more, the proofreading task may be considered the determining factor in deciding whether the learner is to proceed to the next higher step. In this case qualified proofreaders consist of those who have just successfully completed a given step, etc.

Detail will not be presented here on the possible combinations of variations either. A sample, listing some of the subheadings above, will be enough to give an idea of the intent.

An original writer (W) and teacher (T) interaction might look like this:

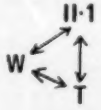
W↔T

The writer gives a completed writing product to the teacher, and the teacher provides feedback which either "promotes" the writer to the next higher step or moves the writer to a new model at the same level.

A more complex interaction, adding a proofreader (see II. 1 above), might look like this:

W↔II:1↔T

It is probable that the interaction arrows will have to be more complex than indicated here. If, for example, the teacher interacts not only with the proofreader, but also with the writer it would be more accurate to represent that in the following way.



The possibilities of one way and two way arrows, and multiple interactions are extensive. This is not the place to present them. Bypassing all such complexities, we should nevertheless illustrate, on a straight line, a combination that might be possible. Using the subheadings listed above, one such complex set of interactions might consist of something like the following:

W↔I:2↔I:4↔II:2↔II:3↔II:4↔T

It is also probable that the reading and correcting roles of the teacher could and should be diminished or eliminated for most purposes.

Further indication of the intricate possibilities is not properly a part of this presentation. The intent here is rather to suggest that, of the hundreds of possibilities, there are surely some that will make composition more of a language related activity, one that is more relevant to communicative interchange, and perhaps one that may eventually be learned more naturally in the doing of tasks that are necessary and done not only in school, but throughout one's life

REFERENCES

1. Dykstra, Gerald. "Eliciting Language Practice in Writing," in *English Language Teaching*. London, 1963.
2. Dykstra, Gerald. "Breaking Down Your Writing Goals," in *English for American Indians*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 4. Selections from the first three issues. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1968, 9.
3. Dykstra, Gerald, Richard Port, and Antonette Port. *Danse Tales: A Course in Controlled Composition*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1966.

(continued on page 19)

Discourse in Reading

(continued from page 7)

had to be inferred. If, though, we decide that the only good sentence for a beginning ESL reader is a short sentence, then paragraph (7) is hopelessly bad. For, though the content is exactly the same, and the order of elements is the same, paragraph one had 7.5 words per sentence, and paragraph two has 14.

To sum up: although it is entirely possible for sentences to be too complex for a beginning ESL reader, it is also possible for them to be too simple. This too-simple syntax inhibits the reader, slows him down as much as a too-complex one would. We need to constantly remind ourselves, I think, that an ESL reader may have had considerable practice in dealing with embeddings in reading his own language, and is cognitively prepared for them. It is stifling to have to settle for Dick and Jane prose when the mind and eye are trained for something more.

The final part of this three-part article will appear in the next issue of TESL Reporter.

TOWARD INTERACTIVE . .

(continued from page 18)

Paulston, Christina Bratt, and Gerald Dykstra. Controlled Composition in English as a Second Language. New York.

4. Dykstra, Gerald, Richard Port, Antonette Port, Jan Prins, Carol Jankowski, Lois Morton, Hafiz Baghban, and Alice Pack. *Composition: Guided Free.* New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1974 and in press.
5. Chomsky, Noam. *Reflections on Language.* New York: Pantheon Books, 1975.
6. Martin Seligman has written in *Psychology Today* and elsewhere on "degrees of preparedness."

Analysis and ESL Testing

(continued from page 17)

Corder, S.P. (1971) Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis, *I.R.A.L.*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 147-159.

Corder, S.P. (1967) The significance of learner's errors, *I.R.A.L.*, Vol. 4, pp.161-169.

Dulay, Heidi and Marina K. Burt. (1972) "Goofing: An Indicator of Children's Second Language Learning Strategies,", *Language Learning*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 235-252.

Fries, C.C. (1945) *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

George, H.V. (1972) *Common Errors in Language Learning.* Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hocking, B.D.W. (1969) "Types of Interference" in *Language and Education in Eastern Africa.* T. Gorman (ed.) Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

Lado, R. (1957) *Linguistics Across Cultures.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Lance, D.M. (1969) *A Brief Study of Spanish-English Bilingualism.* Final Report, Research Project Orr-Liberal Arts-15504, College Station, Texas: Texas A. and M. University.

Nemser, W. (1971) Approximative systems of foreign language learners, *I.R.A.L.*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 115-123.

Oller, John W. Jr. (1972) "Contrastive analysis, difficulty and predictability," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 6, No. 1 (October), pp. 95-106.

Richards, J. (1971) "A non-contrastive approach to error analysis.", *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 25, pp.204-219.

Selinker, Larry. (1972) Interlanguage, *I.R.A.L.*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 204-231.

Upshur, John A. (1962) "Language proficiency testing and the contrastive analysis dilemma.", *Language Learning*, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp. 123-127.

Year of Composition Workshop

February

17-20

1978

(FRIDAY through MONDAY)

The last issue of TESL Reporter included the initial announcement of the second annual "Year of Composition" workshop to be held on the Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus on Feb. 17-20, 1978 (Presidents' Day weekend). The response has been encouraging, as participants will be coming from Japan, Malaysia, Samoa, Hawaii, and the Mainland U.S. Let us add your name to this growing list.

Two major speakers in composition and rhetoric will be featured. In addition to the academic-focus of the workshop, many "extra" activities are planned especially for *malahinis* (first time visitors to Hawaii), including a visit to the world-famous Polynesian Cultural Center.

The four days of the workshop will offer both a stimulating professional experience and a great Hawaiian vacation. If you plan to come, please write to **Dr. Greg Larkin, Box 135, BYU--Hawaii Campus, Laie, Hawaii 96762,** so that your name can be put on the mailing list.

TESL REPORTER
Box 157
Brigham Young University
Laie, Hawaii 96762

Non-Profit Organization
U.S. POSTAGE
PAID
LAIE, HAWAII
Permit Number One